Army and Navy Chronicle,

AND SCIENTIFIC REPOSITORY.

Wm. Q. Force, Editor and Proprietor.—$5 per annum.—Office corner of 10th & D streets.

VOL. I.] WASHINGTON, THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1843. [No. 16.

LETTERS OF COM. JONES RELATIVE TO THE CAPTURE OF MONTEREY.

FLAG-SHIP UNITED STATES,
Rio de Janeiro, March 22, 1842.

SIR: My letter No. 12, dated March 10, informed you of my arrival at this place, and the necessity of caulking the ship outside before she could proceed on her voyage. That operation having been completed in the best manner, and the most of our stores and water replenished, I shall proceed to sea on Thursday morning in further execution of your orders.

* * * * *

There is some speculation afloat as to the large increase of naval force sent to the Pacific by France and England. The latter is not well satisfied as to the object of France; and it has been intimated to me by a high functionary, residing near the imperial court, that it is the intention of France to take possession of and colonize one of the South sea islands, to be maintained as a permanent naval depot.

I have not been able to obtain a list of the French and English squadrons now in the Pacific, but there is a large increase of ships of both navies, and the French ships have carried out troops. Two corvettes sailed hence on Thursday last, each having one hundred and twenty extra troops on board. The English flag-ship, now in the Pacific, is the Dublin, (*razee,*) bearing the flag of Rear Admiral Thomas, who has recently relieved Admiral Ross; the latter I found here in the President, on his way to England, whither he sailed a week ago. * * *

I have the honor to be, most respectfully, your obedient servant,

THOS. AP C. JONES,
Commanding Pacific Squadron.

The Hon. ABEL P. UPSHUR,
Secretary of the Navy.

FLAG-SHIP UNITED STATES,
Callao Bay, May 21, 1842.

SIR: In my letter No. 14, written at Rio de Janeiro, I stated what was there rumored in reference to the movements of the French squadron in those seas, and I now have the honor to inform you that a strong expedition, consisting of several ships of war, transports, and store-ships, having on board, it is said, 1,200 artillerymen, with heavy ordnance and all the appurtenances for siege or fortifying against attack, sailed from Valparaiso in March, destination altogether conjectural; some supposing New Zealand, (this is the opinion of Admiral Thomas, the English commander on the station,) some Tahiti, some the Marquesas, and some the Sandwich islands; while there are others who fix the Californias as the point of embarkation. I incline to the latter opinion.

Had I been on the station at the time, I might have considered it my duty to have followed this expedition, should its course have been directed towards the Washington or Sandwich islands, or any point on the coast of our own continent washed by the Pacific ocean, and to have propounded certain interrogatories to the French commander touching the object of so formidable an expedition, fitted out with so much secrecy as to have eluded the observation even of Great Britain, her ever-watchful rival. From the civil appointments and equipage of this expedition, *colonization* is undoubtedly its object, but the point of settlement is yet unknown; perhaps more than one is contemplated, as reinforcements are constantly passing on.

The occupation of the Sandwich islands by any European Government would be most disastrous to our whale fisheries and commercial interest in these seas; for, unless they are suffered to remain mutual ground, upon which the ships, whether of commerce or war, of all nations may at all times meet in perfect safety, without being subjected to the belligerent operations or laws of any European or other rivals, it would be found most difficult, nay, impossible, for the United States to afford even a shadow of protection to her commercial enterprise in this quarter. Next to the Sandwich islands, the coast of California is deserving the attention of our Government, as regards the extension and protection of our commercial interest in this region. And last, though perhaps not least, is the Washington group, which our country claims by right of discovery, as well as by occupation, it having been actually taken possession of, fortified, and held many months by Commodore Porter during the late war with England.

These are questions which do not properly fall within the sphere of my duties as commander of a squadron, nevertheless it is not impossible but what, as one step follows another, it may be necessary for me to interpose by the assertion of our national commercial rights, in case they are infringed, by any power within the limits of my command. I therefore deem it of great importance that I should be explicitly instructed as to the views of the Government in reference to the suspicious movements of France, whose object is doubtless better known at Washington now than it is out here. To this end, I shall send one of the vessels to Panama, in *December*, to facilitate and make certain the arrival of any messenger you may think proper to despatch, as it is by a special messenger only that we can rely for speedy or certain communication. In the mean time, you may rest assured that, while I shall exercise the utmost vigilance in watching over our interests of every nature in these seas, I shall be extremely cautious to

avoid collision, or in any way disturb the peace and harmony subsisting between our own and foreign governments.

Our consul from the Sandwich islands having left this station some months since for Washington, to communicate important information to the Government, I am not without hope of hearing from you very soon—indeed, by the next arrival; consequently I shall confine this ship's cruising to the coast of Chili and Peru until I do hear from Washington, so that I may be in place to promptly execute your commands.

I have the honor to be, your obedient servant,

THOS. AP C. JONES,
Commanding Pacific Squadron.

The Hon. SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

[CONFIDENTIAL.]

FLAG-SHIP UNITED STATES, AT SEA, SEP. 13, 1842.
Lat. 4° 21′ *S.*, *Long.* 86° 42′ 40″ *W.*

SIR: I am again at sea, and refer you to the accompanying paper, marked A, for the cause of my very sudden and unexpected departure with the squadron from the port of Callao and coast of Peru.

It was not until late on Saturday, the 3d instant, that my suspicions were awakened as to Admiral Thomas's intentions, when I immediately repaired to Lima to confer with Mr. Pickett, our Chargé at that Court, and with whom on this as on other occasions I had full and free consultation, and the result of our conference is now in progress of execution, so far as that I am on my way to the coast of Mexico and California, there to be governed as circumstances may dictate when I shall have reached the scene of action.

The Dublin, bearing the flag of Rear Admiral Richard Thomas, sailed from Callao on the afternoon of the 5th instant, having previously despatched the "Carysfort" and "Champion," *all* under sealed orders. I should have followed the next evening, but was prevented by want of wind. In the interim our vessels took in all the provisions and stores needed that could be obtained at Callao, and put to sea on the afternoon of the 7th, and we are now crowding all sail on the direct course for Mexico.

That this proceeding is calculated to excite your apprehensions as to our *discretion*, I am very free to admit; but I beg to assure you that no precipitate steps will be taken by which aggression will be justly chargeable on me; at the same time, I shall not shrink from any responsibility which, in my judgment, the honor and interest of our country may require. My situation, I can but think, is one of greater embarrassment than has ever before fallen on any of our naval commanders abroad; but I have not the least disposition to transfer it to the shoulders of another. I am proud, however, of having it in my power to say that there is no difference of opinion between that very discreet and able representative of the United States at Lima, the honorable J. C. Pickett, and myself, upon the various international questions we have found it necessary to discuss since I have been on this station; and I need scarcely add that the harmony and good will which prevails in this squadron assure me and the nation that "every man will do his duty" when his country calls.

Your last orders to me are my sailing orders, dated 10th December, 1841, nearly nine months ago, since which I have not a scrip of a pen from the Navy Department; I am, therefore, forced to the belief that your communications must still be detained somewhere on the uncertain route of all communications between the Department and this station; hence, in all that I may do I shall confine myself strictly to what I may suppose would be your views and orders, had you the means of communicating them to me.

The Creole affair, the right of search, the mission of Lord Ashburton, the sailing of a strong squadron from France under sealed orders for the military occupation (as it now turns out) of the Marquesas and *Washington* islands, new difficulties between the United States and Mexico, the well-founded rumor of a cession of the Californias, and, lastly, the secret movements of the English naval force in this quarter, so much at variance with their hitherto practice of regularly *advertising* the intended sailing of their ships, have all occurred since the date of your last orders to me; consequently, I am without instructions or the slightest intimation as to your views and wishes upon what I consider as almost a vital question to the United States—the occupation of California by Great Britain, under a secret treaty with Mexico. In this dilemma, all that I can promise is a faithful and zealous application of my best abilities to promote and sustain the honor and welfare of my country.

I have the honor to be, with profound respect, &c., your obedient servant,

THOS. AP C. JONES,
Commanding Pacific Squadron.

To the Hon. A. P. UPSHUR,
Secretary of the Navy.

A.

FLAG-SHIP UNITED STATES, AT SEA, SEP. 8, 1842,
Lat. 12° 15′ *S.*, *Long.* 77° 37′ *W.*

GENTLEMEN: I lay before you a letter from Mr. John Parrott, United States Consul at Mazatlan, enclosing the Mexican "El Cosmopolita" of June 4, 1842, which contains the manifesto of the Mexican Government, transmitting a certain letter *addressed* to the Hon. Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, to the diplomatic corps and consular agents of all foreign States, in relation to the difficulties pending between the United States and the Government of Mexico, from which it is quite probable the United States and Mexico are at war.

I also lay before you a newspaper published at Boston, (United States,) containing a paragraph taken from the New Orleans advertiser of the 19th of April, 1842, asserting, on what the New Orleans editor considers "*authentic*" information, that Mexico has ceded the Californias to Great Britain for seven millions of dollars. In corroboration of the reported cession of the Californias to Great Britain, I have to inform you that the whole of her Britannic Majesty's naval force, under Rear Admiral Richard Thomas, (filled with extra provisions,) has suddenly and with

the utmost secrecy of purpose left the coast of Chili and Peru, under sealed orders *just sent out from England*, and, as I have good reason to believe, is now on its way to Panama, where it will be reinforced by troops, &c., from the West Indies, destined for the occupation of California.

Regarding the foregoing movement of the British fleet, in connection with the indecorous and menacing letter of the Mexican Minister, Jose Maria de Bocanegra, to Mr. Webster, sent forth to the world under such extraordinary circumstances, and in such discourteous terms as almost positive confirmation of the rumors above alluded to, and as conclusive evidence of the hostile intentions of Mexico towards the United States, I have called you together to get the benefit of your opinions and advice as to the employment of the small naval force at my disposal, so as to best promote the interests and preserve the honor of our country thus suddenly jeoparded.

THOS. AP C. JONES,
Commanding Pacific Squadron.

To Capt. JAMES ARMSTRONG,
Com. C. K. STRIBLING,
Com. THOMAS A. DORNIN,
} *U. S. Navy.*

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After a full and free examination of the matters above submitted, the following questions were severally put and respectively answered:

Question 1*st*. Is the rumor of war between the United States and Mexico, and the reported cession of the Californias by Mexico to Great Britain, sufficiently probable to justify the withdrawal of all or any material portion of our naval force from the coasts of Peru and Chili to send the same to California?

Answer. Yes, without doubt—there being no absolute necessity for more than one vessel (in addition to the store-ship Relief) remaining at or near Callao at this time; and whether we are at peace or war, the employment of our squadron on the Mexican coast, besides being highly beneficial to the security of our citizens and their property, would be no less instructive to our officers as affording favorable opportunity of acquiring much useful knowledge in the line of their profession while cruising on that coast, and in sailing to and from that distant station.

Question 2*d*. Under what circumstances, if any, would it be proper for us to anticipate Great Britain in her contemplated military occupation of California?

Answer. In case the United States and Mexico are at war, it would be our bounden duty to possess ourselves of every point and port of California which we could take and defend without much embarrassment to our operations on the ocean. And if the views of the late President Monroe,* as expressed in his celebrated message to Congress, December 2, 1823, are still received as the avowed and fixed policy of our country, as it undoubtedly is our interest, under the inherent attribute of self-preservation, which all independent nations have the indubitable right to exercise, we should consider the military occupation of the Californias by any European Power, but more particularly by our great commercial rival England, and especially at this particular juncture, as a measure so decidedly hostile to the true interest of the United States, as not only to warrant, but to make it our duty to forestall the design of Admiral Thomas, if possible, by supplanting the Mexican flag with that of the United States at Monterey, San Francisco, and any other tenable points within the territory said to have been recently ceded by secret treaty to Great Britain.

It was further recommended and advised that the "frigate United States," flag-ship of the Pacific squadron, accompanied by the sloop Cyane, proceed with all possible despatch for the coast of California, there to act as circumstances and the honor of our country may require; and to despatch the Dale to convey an express messenger to Washington, *via* Panama, and to obtain at the last-named place the latest intelligence from the United States, as well as to inquire into the real object of Admiral Thomas's sudden and mysterious departure from Callao.

JAMES ARMSTRONG, *Capt. U. S. N.*,
Commanding frigate United States.

C. K. STRIBLING, *Commander*,
Commanding U. S. ship Cyane.

THOMAS A. DORNIN, *Commander*,
Commanding U. S. ship Dale.

Concurred in: THOS. AP C. JONES,
Commanding Pacific Squadron, &c.

* See also ex-President J. Q. Adams's message to Congress, March 15, 1826, explanatory of his motives for sending delegates to the Panama Congress.

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CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
MAZATLAN, *June* 22, 1842.

SIR: I have the honor to enclose a newspaper of the 4th June, containing correspondence between this Government and our Minister in Mexico on the subject of Texas.

From the tone of this correspondence, it is to be supposed that our Minister will be recalled from Mexico immediately on the arrival of the correspondence at Washington, and that it is highly probable there will be a war between the two countries.

General Thompson has made several formal demands of this Government, none of which have as yet been satisfactorily replied to.

The general opinion is, that our Minister at Mexico has been forcing very hard our claims on this country, and that in order to screen itself from the payment of the same, this Government has raised the Texas question, with the view of prolonging the payment of the money awarded under the convention between the two countries.

I do not expect the reply to the letters of Mr. Bocanegra will arrive at Mexico earlier than the middle of August, that the whole may be laid before Congress. I shall embrace the earliest opportunities that may from time to time offer to acquaint you with all that takes place.

I remain, most respectfully, your obedient servant
JOHN PARROTT, *Consul.*

To Com. AP CATESBY JONES,
Commanding the U. S. naval forces Pacific ocean,
Valparaiso or Callao.

From the National Intelligencer.

ARTIFICIAL LIGHT FOR LIGHT-HOUSES.

Remarks made by J. W. P. LEWIS, *Civil Engineer, of Boston, to the* NATIONAL INSTITUTE, *at the stated meeting of the* 12*th of March*, 1843.

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen of the Institute:

Having been requested by some members of your Society to exhibit this evening certain methods of producing "artificial light" in combination with the latest improvements in optical apparatus used for the illumination of light-houses, I have thought it might not be uninteresting if I should preface the experiments by reading you a brief history of the earlier methods practised by European nations in maintaining their *sea-lights*, together with some account of the progressive steps taken from time to time in improving and rendering more effective these valuable aids to navigation. No maritime nation of the present age has so extensive a seacoast as the U. S., or shores more dangerous and difficult of approach to the mariner, as well from the great diversity of climate, extending through twenty-six degrees of latitude, as from their conformation, which, for the most part, is low and flat, visible but a short distance by day, and fringed with hidden rocks and shoals that cause numerous disasters, involving the loss of lives and property among our citizens. The enterprising industry of our commercial people is known and felt in every quarter of the globe, while the amount of tonnage owned in this country is only surpassed by that of Great Britain, the oldest naval power on earth. The importance that, therefore, necessarily attaches itself to the systematic and efficient illumination of our light-houses, distributed as they are along a linear extent of sea and lake coast exceeding 4,000 miles, must be obvious to every intelligent mind, while, as citizens of a Christian Republic, and proud of our high civilization, we are bound by the common law of humanity to render every aid to the maritime portion of our community, to whose successful yet hazardous labors we are indebted for so many luxuries, and upon whom our Government relies for so large a portion of its revenue.

The early history of the application of "artificial light" to the purposes of navigation is exceedingly obscure, and but a few isolated facts are recorded that enable us to judge of the means adopted by the ancients to designate the entrances of their seaports. The "Colossus of Rhodes," a brazen statue, bestriding the entrance to that harbor, is said to have served the purposes of a pharos or light-house. The idea is certainly magnificent, though hardly such an one as would be adopted in this utilitarian age. A more circumstantial account is given by various ancient writers of the pharos of Alexandria, erected there hundred years before Christ, by the architect Sostratus, in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus. The historian Josephus states that the fire which was kept constantly burning upon the summit of this lofty pile could be seen forty miles at sea. This fire was probably maintained by the use of some kinds of resinous wood. Other writers assert that specula or mirrors were used at this pharos to magnify the light, but such statements are entirely unsupported by proper evidence, and we may therefore safely assume that the ancient method of applying the light of huge fires to guide the benighted seaman on his course, was continued without much modification or improvement down to the close of the seventeenth century, at which time all the watch-towers or light-houses upon the coasts of Europe were illuminated with fires of wood or coal kindled upon their summits. The earliest departure from this rude and uncertain method of obtaining a sea-light was adopted at the Tour de Cordovan upon the coast of France. This magnificent pharos was founded in 1584, and completed in 1610, during the reign of Henri Quatre. It is justly considered as the most superb specimen of light-house architecture now extant. The first light exhibited at the Tour de Cordovan was obtained by burning billets of oak wood in an open brazier or grate placed upon the top of the tower; this fuel was soon displaced by the use of butiminous coal; but the first actual attempt at improvement was to place a metallic reflector—in the form of an inverted cone—over the flame of the coal fire, by which means it is probable some increased effect was obtained. This is the first application of any reflecting or magnifying apparatus to such purposes that I have been able to ascertain with certainty. The original Eddystone light-house, erected in 1696, by Henry Winstanley, was surmounted by a brazen lantern and illuminated with large tallow candles; and this is the first record of the use of tallow candles as a substitute for the coal and wood fires upon light-houses, as also the earliest mention of a lantern being used to enclose the light. The third and present Eddystone light-house, erected in 1756, by John Smeaton, was also illuminated with tallow candles. It appears somewhat remarkable that such a man as Smeaton—whose work remains to this day a model of strength, symmetry, and ingenuity, unsurpassed by our best modern constructions—should have overlooked the important point of improving the method of illumination adopted by him in imitation of Winstanley. I am confident every one will admit that, had he bent his powerful mind to the examination of so interesting a subject, some valuable improvement would have been the result. The next step connected with the improvement of light-house illumination was a very important one—this was the invention of the lamp still known as the "Argand," and adapted to the combustion of animal and vegetable oils. It was invented by a citizen of Geneva, whose name it bears, in 1780, and is yet held in the highest estimation for its brilliant light and simplicity of form. A thousand modifications of this celebrated lamp have been brought before the public, disguised under various high sounding names, but all indebted for their reputations to the original conception of citizen Argand. The rare merit of his invention consisted in the construction of the burner and wick, which were cylindrical in form and concentric, one within the other, by which means a thin cylindrical flame of great intensity is produced, when supplied with sperm oil as fuel. The flame being enclosed by a glass tube or chimney, a steady current of atmospheric air is induced

and both the interior and exterior surfaces of the flame are thus copiously supplied with oxygen.

The Chevalier de Borda—whose name and reputation are well known to all scientific men—was the first to suggest the applicability of Argand's lamp to the purposes of light-house illumination, if placed in the focus of a parabolic mirror; and in the year 1784 he was ordered by his Government to carry this plan into effect at the Tour de Cordovan. De Borda employed Lenior, the most celebrated optician of the day, to make his reflectors, which were thirty-one inches in diameter, (the double ordinate,) and weighed each nearly one hundred pounds. De Borda was therefore the author or inventor of the catoptric or reflecting method of illuminating light-houses. The wonderful increase of light obtained by this improvement at the Tour de Cordovan was soon noised abroad, and the following year the corporation of Trinity House, London—who then, as now, were charged with the management of the principal coast lights of England—sent a deputation of their body to examine the great French light. On their return, this deputation reported in favor of De Borda's apparatus, and in 1788 the two light-houses at Portland Bill, in the English channel, were first illuminated with Argand lamps and reflectors. I should here state that these reflectors, like De Borda's, were made of silver, plated upon copper, and finely polished. So early as 1786 reflectors and oil lamps were adopted in the Scottish light-houses generally, as a substitute for the coal fires previously used; but these reflectors were made of small facets of mirror glass, set in a paraboloidal mould of plaster of Paris, secured outside by a tin shell. It was not until 1804 that the invention of De Borda was adopted in Scotland by the light-house board. The North Foreland light-house, at the mouth of the Thames, was erected in 1790 and fitted up with the catoptric apparatus. In 1798 there were added to this apparatus a plain convex lens of impure glass, placed one in front of each reflector, to the serious injury of the light. Each lens is said to have cost £50 sterling, and they were allowed to remain until about ten years since. When removed the light of course appeared more brilliant, because these lenses, besides being imperfectly made, destroyed all the good effect of the reflectors, from their relative positions and forms being entirely incongruous. This is the earliest fact I have found stating the use of lenses in connection with the illuminating apparatus of light-houses. In 1807, the Trinity House having resumed the management of the Eddystone light-house, upon the expiration of its lease to some private individuals, the tallow candles were removed and the apparatus of De Borda substituted in their place. In 1808 but few coal lights remained upon the coasts of Great Britain, and France had banished them entirely, though they were still retained in Holland, Norway, and Sweden. In passing through the Cattegat to the Baltic sea, in 1828, I saw several of them, but there is probably not one left at this time, the superiority of the catoptric system having become generally known and adopted. In 1812 the improvements of De Borda reached the United States, though in such a rude guise that he would hardly have recognised any resemblance. It is a singular fact that his invention was patented in this country by one of our citizens as an original design, and the right thereof was purçhased by our Government for the sum of $20,000. The lens mentioned as having been erroneously applied at the North Foreland light-house formed a part of the illegal patent just named, and was continued in use so late as 1840, in which year I removed a set from a light-house in Long Island Sound and now preserve them as a curiosity. The American light-houses were illuminated prior to the year 1812 with what were then termed spider lamps. This lamp consisted of a copper vessel capable of containing several gallons of oil. From its sides projected six or eight large tubes, radiating from the centre, and each fitted with a stout cotton wick. The consumption of oil and production of lampwick in the lantern was enormous, while the light obtained was but a feeble glimmer.

The next important improvement in the illumination of light-houses was made in 1822. M. Augustus Fresnet, whose discoveries in optical science are still the admiration of all European savans, being appointed in 1819 one of a commission to devise some improvements in the illumination of the French light-houses, on the 29th of July, 1822, read a paper before the meeting of the Academy of Sciences describing the result of his laborious yet successful experiments. The invention and improvements of Fresnet are known as the dioptric or lenticular apparatus, which was finally adopted by the Government of France in 1825, and all their coast lights have been refitted with it. The want of suitable diagrams will prevent me from entering into a detailed description of the dioptric or lenticular system of illumination; I shall endeavor therefore to convey some general idea of it in few words. The apparatus consists of a system of large plano-convex lenses, which form the vertical faces of an octangular prism. The centre of this lenticular prism is the common focus of the eight lenses, and is therefore the position of the flame of a powerful lamp, whose light is consequently refracted to eight several portions of the horizon. The prism being made to revolve in asimuth by suitable machinery, the eight beams of refracted light pass in succession before the eye of the distant observer, producing what navigators term a revolving light. In the case of fixed lights, (or those whose light appears of a constant magnitude to the eye,) the place of the octangular prism just described is supplied by a vertical cylinder, composed of cut glass zones, which refract the light of the lamp placed in the focus equally to all parts of the horizon. The lenses in both cases are constructed of several pieces each, and are therefore termed "polyzonal," or "annular," from the nature or form of the segments which compose them. The lens you have seen here this evening will convey a much clearer idea of this interesting subject than any description of mine. It is a specimen of the work of M. François Soliel, now the most distinguished optician in Paris. In revolving lights, such a lens as this would form one face of the system I have endeavored to describe.

In 1825 the light previously known for many years in experimental chemistry, and produced by the incandescence of lime in the mixed gases, oxygen, and hydrogen, was first successfully applied to a highly useful and practical purpose by Lieut. Drummond, of the Royal Engineers. In the operations connected with the trigonometrical survey of Ireland under the direction of Col. Colby, this light, placed in the focus of a silver parabolic mirror, and exhibited from the summit of Slievesnaught, a mountain 2,100 feet in height, was seen from mount Divis, near Belfast, a distance of seventy miles. At the same time a light-house land reflector of the usual form was placed as a ranging mark upon the tower of Randalstown Church, fifteen miles distant from the observers stationed at Mount Divis. When the Drummond light appeared, so great was its brilliancy and apparent magnitude, that the ranging light on Randalstown Church seemed the most distant of the two, though nearer by fifty-five miles. In 1830 Lieut. Drummond commenced a series of experiments under the direction of the Trinity House Board, with a view of applying his improvement to the illumination of light-houses. These experiments attracted the attention of all the most eminent men then in London; but unfortunately about this time Lieut. Drummond was called to labor in a new sphere of life, and compelled to abandon the pursuit of scientific research, to serve his country in a political capacity, and no further steps were taken to render the lime light available for the purpose of light-house illumination.

In 1827 Mr. Goldsworthy Gurney, a resident of Bude, in Cornwall, invented the light since so much spoken of as the "Bude light;" but it was not until 1834 that he succeeded in attracting the attention of the Government to its great merits. This light he was then ordered to apply to the illumination of the House of Commons, and succeeded in producing a most brilliant effect. His invention consisted in supplying the combustion of sperm oil, used in Argand burners, with a stream of pure oxygen gas instead of atmospheric air. The distillation of sperm oil by the necessary degree of heat, produces the gas known as carburetted hydrogen, and the same result follows, though imperfectly, in the ordinary combustion of sperm oil in all lamps. Mr. Gurney has since availed himself of this fact by dismissing the oil lamps as a part of the Bude light, and substituted therefor pure carburetted hydrogen as the fuel for combustion. This gas, as you are well aware, is that now so generally used in the lighting of streets and buildings in all the principal cities of Europe and this country. By supplying the gas burner with a stream of pure oxygen instead of the common atmospheric air, as heretofore, a most intense and effective light is obtained, and, what is of some importance, without any increase of expense. This is the Bude light of the present day. As far as I can learn, it has not yet been permanently applied to the illumination of light-houses, though the Trinity House have for a long time past employed Mr. Gurney to conduct a series of experiments, which it is hoped may lead to some practical results. At present, however, the methods of generating the gases require to be much simplified before the apparatus can be entrusted to keepers of light-houses.

I have now enumerated all the various inventions which have had for their object the improvement in the illumination of light-houses, and you will perceive we are still confined to one material (sperm oil) for the production of our light, and to two methods of rendering that light of service to navigation. These are the catoptric, or reflecting apparatus, invented by De Borda in 1784, and the dioptric or lenticular apparatus, invented by Fresnel in 1822.

A few remarks upon the relative economical value of these two systems may not be out of place here. As the apparatus used in all American light-houses is so very inferior as to be unfit for comparison with the European, I shall present as examples the comparative expense of fitting up and afterwards maintaining the two kinds of apparatus named, and now used in France and England respectively. I cite the evidence of Alan Stevenson, Esq., of Edinburgh, a distinguished engineer, who has a thorough theoretical as well as practical knowledge of the subject in hand. He says:

"The expense of fitting up a revolving light, with twenty-four reflectors. &c., may be estimated at £1,298, and the annual maintenance at £418. The fitting up of a revolving light, with eight lenses and the accessory apparatus, may be estimated at £1,263, and the annual cost of maintenance at £280. It therefore follows, that, to establish and maintain a light of the kind called 'revolving white,' of the catoptric order, so as to be equal in power to the dioptric light of Cordovan, an annual outlay of £137 more would be required for the reflecting than for the lens light, whilst for a light of the kind called 'revolving red and white,' as the 'Bell Rock,' thirty-six reflectors would be required to make the light equal in power to the Cordovan, and the reflecting light would cost annually £333 (or about $600) more than the lens light.

"The expense of establishing a fixed light, composed of twenty-six reflectors, may be estimated at £950, and the annual cost of maintenance at £425; and the expense of fitting up a dioptric fixed light is £1,058, and the annual maintenance may be taken at £267. It thus appears that the annual cost of the 'fixed lens light' is £158 less than that of a fixed light composed of twenty-six reflectors, and the light obtained with the former is *four times* more powerful than the latter."

This statement of Mr. Stevenson therefore shows that the saving upon annual cost of illumination by adopting the French system would be—

For first class revolving lights $1,600 per annum,
For first class fixed lights $600 per annum.
With a quadruple increase of light in the latter.

There are two hundred and sixty land lights of all descriptions in the United States, of which two hundred and thirty-three are "fixed lights," and but twenty-seven "revolving lights." There are also thirty floating lights, all of which are of the "fixed" order. The apparatus used for illuminating purposes in all these land lights, with one solitary exception, is the Argand burner and reflectors of a

very ordinary character, made by mechanics who are totally ignorant of the proper method of obtaining the parabolic form, a work which we all know appertains strictly to the scientific optician.

It is evident from the statement of Mr. Stevenson, which is based upon his professional experience acquired in refitting several British lights with Fresnel's improvements, that the adoption of the lens lights in this country would be attended with great benefits to our navigators, by increasing the brilliancy and effectiveness of the lights, and also with a very large annual saving in the present cost of maintenance. A stronger proof of the economy and efficiency that arises from the systematic organization of any branch of public service cannot be given, than by presenting to your notice the management of the light-house establishment of France. The active supervision and details of service are entrusted to officers of the Engineer Corps des Ponts et Chaussées. These report to the light-house commission—a board of scientific public officers—who in turn report to the Minister of State for the Interior, the official head of the French light-house establishment. No sea-lights in Europe are so highly estimated by navigators as those of France, and none are maintained at so low an annual cost. The entire annual maintenance of the one hundred and nineteen French coast lights, including repairs and all other expenses, is but $67,534. The American establishment of sea-lights has cost, for some years past, nearly half a million—both these statements being obtained from official sources.

The *economy* that would result to this country in adopting the improvements I have endeavored to describe, is alone worthy of notice; but when you perceive the astonishing effect in increasing the intensity of "light" obtained by the simple use of instruments constructed under the hands of scientific men, and then estimate the value of these powerful lights to our navigators in comparison with such as we now use, the saving of expenditure will be lost sight of in the conviction that these improvements are not only due to the great commercial interests of this country, but still more so to our reputation, as standing in the front rank of civilized nations.

REMARKS ON THE PRECEDING ARTICLE.

Having read in the Intelligencer of April 12 some remarks made by Mr. J. W. P. Lewis to the National Institute, at the stated meeting of March 12, 1843, and perceiving their scope to be an endeavor to underrate the system and management of light-house illumination adopted in the United States, I have deemed it a duty to make a fair statement of the American system contrasted with foreign systems. In this I have no further object than to sustain our national credit with the commerce of the world, by showing that the coast of the United States is better illuminated, and at less cost, than the coasts of Great Britain and France, the only ones that can at all be put in the comparison. The direct reverse of this is asserted by Mr. Lewis. And, also, to correct an erroneous statement with regard to the absolute annual expense of our light-house establishment, and the difference asserted to exist between the mechanical work of the British and American lighting apparatus.

While Mr. Lewis confines himself to light-house chronology, it is a matter of small consequence whether his remarks be true or not; but when he states that "the apparatus used in American light-houses is so very inferior as to be unfit for comparison with the European," it is time that his assertion should be met and disproved. Mr. Lewis accords to the Chevalier de Borda the credit of first inventing and adapting to light-house illumination what is termed the catoptric principle of producing artificial light—that is, by reflection—and assigns for date the year 1784, and then goes on further to state that "in 1812 the improvements of De Borda reached the United States, though in such a rude guise that he would hardly have recognised any resemblance."

A plain description of De Borda's contrivance will satisfy all that no reasons could exist for rudely imitating it, as the perfect apparatus can be furnished at the same cost and with the same labor as the rude imitation, and its simplicity renders ridiculous any assertions that its principle or mode of adaptation could be mistaken. The contrivance consists of a lamp (generally Argand's) placed in the focus of a parabolic reflector, formed of copper, plated with silver, and highly polished. The well-known law in natural philosophy, that projectiles are reflected from smooth surfaces at angles equal to their angles of incidence, gives this curve as the correct one for the projection of rays of light in parallel lines with the axis of the reflector, the rays being incident upon the paraboloid from a flame occupying its focus. This will be readily understood by all. And here we have the catoptric principle of lighting as practised all over the world—a parabolic polished reflector and lamp. On the excellence of these too *solely depends the efficiency of the light*. It is a matter of no consequence to the excellence of the light as to what kind of tower sustains it, or on what kind of table it is placed; it might as well be objected to the street lamps that their light is bad because the lamp-posts are not neatly painted, as to state (as Mr. Lewis does) that our apparatus is unworthy a comparison with the European, and thence inferring the inferiority of our lights.

The reflectors used in the American light-houses are of precisely the same pattern, figure, and style of workmanship used for the British and French lights; specimens of all three may be examined in the office of the Fifth Auditor of the Treasury Department, and if there be a discernible difference it is in the superior polish of the American reflectors. The lamps are the same in all, (Argand's fountain lamp,) and I now ask how can there be any difference in the amount of intensity of light produced?

The American lamps are supplied with the best quality of sperm oil—the best material in the world for producing an equable and intense light; yet, with these facts staring in his face, Mr. Lewis states that the American lights are unworthy a comparison with the European. It is physically impossible that any difference should exist, and it is merely charlatanry to assert the contrary.

Again, it is stated that our apparatus is inferior to the English. Now, our lights are arranged on the same kind of chandelier, (as may be ascertained by inspection of plans of British light-houses in the office of the Fifth Auditor of the Treasury Department,) and are distinguished by the same modes adopted by the British. Like theirs, our lights are "fixed," "flashing," and "revolving;" arranged on circular, oblong, or triangular chandeliers; no difference in design or workmanship exists.

The American improved lanterns are fitted with plate glass, 20 by 48 inches; larger than the panes generally used in British light-houses.

Our best lights are visible for distances of thirty miles and more, than which no greater is obtained by any foreign lights, nor is it desirable that they should be seen at a greater distance. Mr. Lewis finds fault that so few revolving lights are established upon our coast. The revolving light is precisely the same as the fixed light, the different effect being produced by the revolution of the chandelier. It is an arrangement only introduced for the purpose of distinction, and, of course, it is not required to be multiplied beyond that necessity.

Mr. Lewis also states that our "Argand burners and reflectors are of a very ordinary character, made by mechanics who are totally ignorant of the method of obtaining the parabolic form—a work which we all know appertains strictly to the scientific optician." The whole sentence is erroneous in fact and inference. The Argand burners and reflectors are of the very best order, as any person may satisfy himself by inspecting the specimens in the office of the Fifth Auditor; more beautiful articles of mechanical labor can no where be found, and they will triumphantly sustain a comparison with any that can be produced. They certainly are made by mechanics, as all other things of the kind are made, where the execution depends on manual labor and skill; nor is it at all necessary that the mechanic should have any knowledge as to the principles or object of the work he is executing. A die is given him to form the reflector upon, and his task consists in fitting the metal to its pattern. It is, indeed, something new that the act of forming a piece of copper to a certain curve is "strictly" the work of "the scientific optician." The optician's work was performed when the contrivance was designed. As to obtaining the required curve, any schoolboy, whose mathematical studies have reached the conic sections, is as sufficient to the task as a Newton. All the American reflectors are struck from the same die, and do not vary from each other or the true curve a fraction of a line.

Mr. Lewis recommends the French lenticular or dioptric apparatus, and contrasts it with the catoptric apparatus in point of cost, selecting the large British sea-lights with twenty-six burners as the representatives of the catoptric principle. The French lenses are polygonal in plan, (generally eight sided,) and are formed of glass, worked to such curves as will refract the light from a lamp placed in their common focus, in horizontal lines; the same effect being aimed at as is produced by the reflectors—a concentration of the scattered rays into beams of light.

The practical effect is the same in both systems—the light from the reflectors being visible for the same distance as from the lens—but the lens possesses the advantage of giving a larger light, as it fills a greater portion of the horizon. This applies only to the "fixed" catoptric lights, where the observer sees but the beam from the reflector at a time; but in revolving lights, where ten or more reflectors are arranged upon a side, the catoptric light shows as large as the lens light, and the difference then lies wholly in the first cost of the apparatus and the after cost of maintenance. It must be understood that the French lens is only adapted for revolving lights, by reason of the large part of the horizon left in darkness at the angles.

The question of cost and efficiency will be better shown by the following contrast of the two best lights on our coast. The light at Neversink, New Jersey, is produced from a lens of the first order; that at Cape Henlopen from reflectors and Argand lamps, manufactured by Mr. Winslow Lewis, of Boston.

First cost of the French lens at Neversink,	$9,500
First cost of the reflectors, lantern, &c., complete at Henlopen, - - -	3,500
Gallons of oil consumed per an. at Neversink,	547.
Do. do. do. at Henlopen,	649.
4 keepers employed at Neversink.	
1 keeper employed at Henlopen.	
Neversink light visible 30 miles	
Henlopen light visible 30 miles.	

It is extremely difficult to make a comparison with the annual expense of maintaining the French lights. They consume the oil de colza, a much cheaper substitute for sperm oil, and the keepers' salaries and the cost of labor and materials in general are so far below the American as to preclude a correct parallel.

When this difference is allowed for, it will be found that the 256 light-houses and 30 light-vessels of the United States are maintained at a proportionably less cost than the 119 French lights, most of which are mere harbor-beacons, visible for distances only ranging from five to nine miles.

Mr. Lewis states that the American light-house establishment, for some years back, has cost nearly half a million per annum. Below are the official returns; they speak for themselves:

For the year 1840 the expense was -	$334,398 71
Do. 1841 do. do. -	348,635 41

The comparison of the cost of maintenance with British lights can be nearer approximated. In Doc. 811, House of Reps., 27th Congress, 2d session, I find the following:

Average annual cost of maintaining each American light vessel, - -	$2,862 00
Do. do. British light-vessel, -	5,922 00
Do. do. American light-house,	911 00
Do. do. British do. -	2,268 00

These few figures speak volumes with regard to the economy and prudent management of our light-house establishment, and the efficiency with which it is con-

ducted, and I think justly challenges comparison with any light-house establishment in the world. X.

[ADDITION TO THE ABOVE.]

In the communication on "Artificial Light" that appeared in the National Intelligencer of the 20th instant, I omitted to state the fact that the French light-house system does not embrace, as the British and American systems do, the employment of light-vessels. This materially affects the comparison of cost between the French and American light-house systems.

The French light-houses are about one hundred and nineteen in number, the great majority of which are mere harbor lights—small lenses lighted with *one* Argand lamp, and visible for distances of six miles.

The American light-houses are two hundred and fifty-six in number, and almost all of a large class, visible for distances ranging from twenty to thirty miles; in addition to which there are thirty light-vessels, whose annual expense (reckoning light for light) exceeds by about two-thirds the annual expense of the light-houses. This is owing to the necessity of maintaining a complete crew on board each vessel, and to the continual repairs of damages unavoidable from their exposed situations.

In the year 1840, the cost of maintaining the thirty light-vessels belonging to the United States was	$123,246 31
Ditto for the year 1841, - - -	85,050 58

The last sum is about a fair annual average. The unexampled frequency of violent storms in 1840, caused the increased expenditure for that year. Yet of these material facts, the great excess of cost in the maintenance of a floating over a land-light, and absence of floating-lights upon the French coast, is unnoticed in the comparison of the annual cost of American and French light-houses, as made in the "Remarks" of Mr. J. W. P. LEWIS, published in the National Intelligencer of the 12th instant. X.

From the St. Augustine News.

CAPTAIN G. S. DRANE.—There are few officers who served in Florida during the late disastrous war, more deserving of promotion, and none more shamefully neglected, than Captain G. S. DRANE, of the U. S. 2d artillery. Among the list of recent brevets, there are men whose claim to Florida's gratitude for valiant services, rendered in endeavoring to quell the ravages of the Seminole in her borders, are but as trifling when compared with those of this gallant officer. His conduct at the battle of the Withlacoochee, in December, 1835, was enough in itself to add a well-earned laurel on the warrior's brow. If we mistake not, the Legislature of Florida, in February, 1838, unanimously recommended to the President of the United States Captains D. D. TOMPKINS and G. S. DRANE as deserving of brevet promotions for their gallant services. Captain TOMPKINS has been brevetted, but Captain DRANE neglected. It is to be hoped, however, that the President will rectify this oversight, by rendering to Captain DRANE the claim so justly due for his meritorious conduct.

DEATH OF COMMODORE PORTER.

The following extract of a letter from a relative of Commodore Porter, in Constantinople, published in the Philadelphia Gazette, contains some interesting particulars of his last illness and death. The Commodore has been for some years past in very feeble health, and latterly had been exceedingly prostrated. On the 27th February last he was seized with an acute attack of pleurisy and pericarditis, which, after a few days of intense suffering, terminated fatally on the 3d of March. The letter proceeds to say:

FRIDAY, *March* 3, 1 *P. M.*

The poor Commodore is no more. He died without pain and scarce a struggle, at exactly twelve meridian. All that could be done by the most assiduous and untiring attention to relieve him in his last moments, was done. Nature was exhausted, and to judge from his tranquillity, we may safely say that for some hours previous to his decease he was insensible to pain. By his last will, Commodore Porter directed that his body should be interred at the foot of the flagstaff; this will be done. Commodore Morgan will be written to, to request him to send a vessel of war to convey the remains to the United States

The morning of the day on which he was taken ill, he took a long ride in the carriage he had lately purchased. I went with him. He appeared to suffer much pain, and I urged him in vain to return home. The roads were deep with mud, and as the carriage is rather heavy for the horses, they were obliged to stop once or twice for breath, and once fell; still he ordered the coachman to drive on. He leaned back his head and groaned, as if suffering great pain, but uttered no complaint. On our return home he was completely exhausted, and was almost carried to bed.

SUNDAY, *March* 5.—A deep grave has been dug a few yards to the northward of the flag-staff; it is lined and floored with bricks. A flooring of oaken boards is also laid down to prevent the effects of the dampness. There will be three coffins, viz: an inner one of lead, made air-tight and filled with rum; next a walnut casing covered with black cloth, with the letters D. P. in brass nails on the lid, it being found impossible to have a silver plate engraved here. In the grave will be placed an outer coffin in strong deal, stained black, in which the coffin will be deposited. Invitations have been issued to all the diplomatic corps and the Americans here for the funeral ceremonies, but as the weather is bad, I fear the attendance will be small.

MONDAY, *March* 6, 3 *P. M.*—The funeral is over. It was attended by the attaches of several legations and all the Americans resident in Pera. The ministers who were not present themselves or who had not sent representatives, sent letters of condolence. After the funeral the Americans present assembled, and passed the following resolutions. 1st. That they would wear crape for the space of one month. 2d. That letters of condolence should be sent to Mrs. Porter. 3d. That copies of resolutions should be sent to the Department of State, to Mrs. Porter, and to the family here. Signed by all the Americans in Pera.

From the North American Review.

U. S. EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

It is now more than eleven months since the return of this important expedition, freighted with results which justified the utmost expectations of those who were concerned in fitting it out, or who felt an interest in its success; and it is upwards of nine months since that interesting document, "*A Synopsis of the Cruise of the U. S. Exploring Expedition*," has been published. It was prepared at the request of the Secretary of the Navy himself, after listening to the unpretending narrative of the chief events of his voyage, given by Mr. Wilkes before the National Institute at Washington, shortly after his return, and contains a succinct statement of the whole cruise of the Exploring Squadron, with a rapid sketch of the brilliant results obtained by the expedition. And yet this narrative of an achievement so honorable to the navy, so useful to the commerce and navigation of the country, so creditable to its projectors, and so beneficial to science, has excited less of public attention in the United States than any of the hundred tales of misery and crime which daily occupy the columns of our papers in all their disgusting details. The results of this expedition will be the first contribution to science offered to the world by the Government of the United States; and we will venture to say, for we have carefully examined them, that they are worthy of the nation that presents them. In the peaceful pursuits of science, as in all the great attributes of a warlike marine, our navy has, to say the least, entered into honorable competition with the navies of the great maritime nations of Europe.

Why is it, then, that the commanders of similar expeditions, so frequently despatched by those powers, are, in all cases, rewarded by the thanks and honors of their sovereign, and their toils and sufferings amply repaid by the sympathy and applause of their fellow-countrymen, while the officers of this expedition, who have toiled and suffered as much, and succeeded to the full as well, have been neglected, and even persecuted, since their return home? We are unwilling to consider this conduct of the Government and people of the United States as a fresh illustration of the common saying, that Republics are always ungrateful. We are rather inclined to believe, that this has arisen from unfounded prejudices that prevail respecting the character and conduct of the accomplished officers who commanded the two ships, and with regard to the circumstances attending the appointment of Mr. Wilkes, who is only a lieutenant in the navy, to so high and important a command. He was, as he says himself, accused of manœuvring at Washington to obtain this command; an accusation which he fully disproves, by the united testimony of all who had any concern in fitting out the expedition. No blame, therefore, ought to be attached to him for accepting an honorable appointment, when it was tendered to him by his superiors, without any solicitation on his part. Whatever obloquy attaches to this selection must be cast upon the appointing power alone. Mr. Poinsett, in reply to the interrogatory of Mr. Wilkes on this subject, expressly says: "It (the appointment) was conferred upon you by the President, on my recommendation, given without any solicitation whatever, and before you, or any person connected with you, could have been aware of my intention to propose you for this service." He who was then Secretary of War is, therefore, the only person responsible for this recommendation, and, in truth, for the selection of Mr. Wilkes for this command. This officer himself stands acquitted of all participation in the insult, as it has been termed, offered to his superiors in rank in the service. He is guilty only of having accepted a command, which he fully understood involved great responsibility, and must be attended with disgrace, if he failed to meet the high expectations entertained by the public of the results of this expedition. But what young officer, who felt himself equal to the task, would have declined this distinguished service? We ask, in all candor, whether, if he had done so, he would have been worthy of the rank which he bore, or of the navy in which he was reared?

Let us say one word on the principle of selecting officers for a particular service without regard to their rank, before we explain the circumstannes which led to the appointment of Mr. Wilkes. It has become necessary to discuss it, because even the younger officers have been clamorous against this exercise of a necessary privilege of Government. We regard the occasional exercise of this privilege as in a high degree beneficial to the army and navy; and, to the honor of the former service, it is to be noted, that no objection has ever been made by its officers to the means of distinction being placed in the hands of one of their number who was their subordinate in rank; but they have rejoiced in successes gained by persons in any station, which added lustre to their branch of the service. If this principle is to be abandoned, there is no incentive left to the junior officers. They may neglect the studies connected with their profession, stay on shore when they can, perform their duties carelessly, and still be sure of the only reward they can ever look forward to—slow, but certain, promotion. No hope or expectation is to be entertained that they may be one day chosen to execute some hardy enterprise, which may illustrate their names, and confer honor on the service to which they belong. They are to be doomed to insignificance, and, therefore, it matters not whether they become accomplished officers or not. Wo to the country where such ideas prevail among those who are charged with its defence! On the other hand, is the Government to be reduced to the necessity of employing an officer on all occasions and emergencies, even the most important and critical, because he is of the prescribed rank, and stands foremost on the list, however incapable and inefficient he may be? Surely, no one will advocate a system which might, and, indeed, necessarily would, insure defeat and disgrace.

In order that the motives may be properly understood, which led to the departure from the ordinary rules of service on this occasion, it will be necessary briefly to advert to the circumstances in which the expedition was placed by the resignation of Captain T. Ap Catesby Jones, who had been appointed to the

command by President Jackson, and to the causes which compelled President Van Buren to intrust the completion of its outfit, and the task of getting it to sea, to the Secretary of War. Under the direction of Captain Jones, three vessels, a ship and two brigs, had been constructed for the express purposes of this expedition, a small schooner purchased, and a frigate, the *Macedonian*, completely fitted for the cruise. The public were anxiously waiting the departure of the squadron, which was assembled at New York; indeed, they were becoming clamorous at the delay; when suddenly it was announced, that Captain Jones had resigned. Of the correspondence between this officer and the Secretary of the Navy, it is foreign from our purpose to speak, except to observe that it exhibits throughout a want of that respectful courtesy which ought to characterize expressions addressed by a junior to a superior officer.

And here we must remark, that it is too common a fault with the junior officers in our navy to treat their superiors with disrespect—not always in a manner which would subject them to a court martial, although instances of this kind are of too frequent occurrence—but with a taunting manner, calculated to irritate, and to discredit their commander with his subordinates, and thereby to undermine and destroy the strict discipline which is required on board a vessel of war, in order to render the service safe and efficient. We will venture to assert, that such conduct as has been brought to light in the trial of Commodore Elliot, and in some court martials recently held, was never witnessed in any other naval service in the world. Not so were reared the gallant officers who gave our navy the standing it now has among the nations of the earth. And we say it in no unkind spirit towards the younger officers of our service, that they are preparing for themselves a period of suffering and bitter humiliation. They, too, must, in the natural course of events, be called to the command of squadrons, and to lead our ships into distant seas, and on hazardous enterprises; and, if something be not done to check this spirit of insubordination, they, too, are destined to experience the care, anxiety, and mortification which attend a commander whose inferiors treat him with inattention and covert or open disrespect.

But we return to the proper subject of this article, from which we have been led by an anxious desire to see maintained, not only the high and chivalrous spirit, but the character for discipline, acquired by our navy in its infancy, and so gallantly and successfully sustained until the close of the last war. Captain Jones's resignation renewed the difficulties of the Secretary of the Navy. He found a large squadron manned and equipped for sea, with a corps of scientific men selected to accompany it, more numerous than had ever accompanied any naval or military expedition, except, perhaps, the French, when they invaded Egypt under Bonaparte, and incumbered with a mass of materials collected by these *savans*, for which it was difficult to find stowage. The first care of Mr. Dickerson was, to find a commander to replace Captain Jones, and, with great judgment, he selected for that purpose, first, Captain Shubrick, and next, Captain Perry; but, as both these officers declined the undertaking, and as it had been considered proper not to order any officer to this squadron, but to cause the services to be voluntarily rendered, their excuses were accepted. Every thing relating to the squadron appeared to be brought to a stand by their refusal. The public clamor against the delay increased; and at length Congress began to notice it, and to call for information. At this period, Mr. Dickerson was taken ill; and President Van Buren, aware of the deep interest felt by Congress, and by the nation at large, in the success of this great national enterprise, solicited Mr. Poinsett, at that time Secretary of War, to take charge of its further outfit, and to send it to sea. Mr. Poinsett yielded to Mr. Van Buren's wishes, at a moment when the duties of his own office were both complicated and arduous; and, calling to his aid the experienced and accomplished officers then composing the Navy Board at Washington, set seriously to work to examine the *materiel* of the squadron destined for this important service.

It was at once found, that the vessels selected were unfit for a voyage of exploration and discovery. It was the unanimous opinion of those officers, that the *Macedonian* drew too much water to venture upon an unknown coast, and to assist in the survey of bays and harbors; nor was a frigate of her size considered a proper vessel for such an expedition, as her loss would have terminated the voyage, and thus defeated the great object that the Government had in view. For these, and other reasons, not necessary to be enurated here, it was thought expedient to reject this vessel. On repeated trials at sea, the two brigs, which had been constructed for this especial use, were found destitute of the ordinary sailing qualities of our common merchantmen, and they were necessarily turned over for other service. The schooner likewise proved unseaworthy, and the only one of the vessels which could be retained, was the store-ship *Relief;* and it would have been much more advantageous to the service if she, too, had been abandoned. Mr. Wilkes says, in page nine of his Synopsis: "The *Relief* store-ship, the only one that belonged to the former squadron, in consequence of her dull sailing, was found but ill adapted to co-operate with the rest." It appears that, after meeting with a series of disasters, and occasioning great delay to the expedition while in the South Pacific, she was ordered home, and has been since converted into a receiving-ship.

The absolute necessity for remodelling the squadron having been acknowledged by the Navy Commissioners, an inquiry was instituted into the means of doing so, and it was soon discovered that the liberal appropriations made by Congress for fitting out this expedition were exhausted. There was no alternative but to employ vessels already in the service, and to fit them out with the funds at the disposition of the Navy Department for that purpose. The sloops-of-war *Vincennes* and *Peacock*, and the brig *Porpoise*, were chosen for this purpose, and two pilot boats, the *Sea Gull* and *Flying Fish*, were added, which, with the *Relief* store-ship, constituted the squadron as it was finally organized.

This selection of vessels being made, that of a com-

mander claimed the attention of the Secretary. He believed that Captain Gregory, from his known character for enterprise and seamanship, and from the qualities which he had exhibited on former occasions, would prove in many respects a proper choice, and the command was accordingly offered to him. At first he assented, but subsequently declined the honorable and responsible command. Captain Smith, of Massachusetts, was then applied to, and, after some hesitation, he repaired to Washington to make himself acquainted with the details of the service on which he was about to engage. When these were explained to him, he very frankly said, that there was one portion of the duty expected from the commander of this expedition which he could not perform, nor would he accept the command, unless some scientific officer were assigned to this duty, and appointed to one of the ships. For this object he designated Lieutenant Wilkes, who was accordingly ordered to Washington from the coast of Georgia, where he was engaged on a survey. On being informed of the wishes of Capt. Smith, Lieutenant Wilkes at once availed himself of the privilege granted to officers invited to serve in the squadron, and declined acting in the capacity in which it was proposed to employ him. Capt. Smith was requested to designate some other junior officer, equally capable of performing this duty to his satisfaction; but, repeating his wish to be permitted to withdraw from the command, if Mr. Wilkes persisted in his refusal to accompany him as the scientific officer of the squadron, he was allowed to return to his post at Charlestown.

At this period, the idea of appointing Lieutenant Wilkes to the command first suggested itself to the gentleman charged with the superintendence of this expedition. He was confessedly a good seaman and navigator, and was one of the few officers who possessed the requisite scientific attainments to qualify them for carrying out the views of the Government in despatching this expedition, and fulfilling the expectations of the scientific world. For it is to be recollected, that the intention of the United States to fit out and despatch an Exploring Squadron had been long announced; and that both France and England were on the point of sending out squadrons for like purposes, to be commanded by experienced and accomplished officers; and that the honor of the country, as well as the credit of the navy, was deeply concerned in the success of the expedition. Those great maritime powers, in their choice of officers for such commands, had never confined their views to station and rank; but, in every case, they had selected junior officers, of sufficient scientific attainments, and fitting qualifications. Captain Cook was not even a commissioned officer. He was master on board a man-of-war, and received a commission of lieutenant, to enable him to command the other officers placed under him. There were abundant precedents to justify the appointment of a junior officer to this service; and the Secretary of the Navy exhibited a letter, which he had received from our own Bowditch, in which that distinguished man bore ample testimony to the capacity and scientific attainments of Mr. Wilkes. It was not until after his appointment had been sanctioned by the President, that any one of the older officers offered their services to command the Exploring Squadron. Five post-captains had been solicited to accept the command, and had either resigned after assuming it for a short period, or had declined it altogether; and no one had volunteered until the squadron was finally organized under the command of Lieutenant Wilkes, when Captain Kennon and Commander Aulick offered their services. Mr. Wilkes selected Lieutenant Hudson as his second; but that officer refused to serve under a lieutenant lower on the list than himself. This difficulty was at length overcome by the expedition being divested of all military character by a general order issued through the Navy Department, and by the judicious advice of some of the older officers.

These preliminaries being settled, the completion of the outfit went on with spirit. The scientific corps was reduced from thirty-two to eight persons, and some of their duties were assigned to the senior and junior officers. A mass of cumbersome materials, provided by the corps to preserve their collections, and which would have required an additional vessel of transport, was thrown aside. After Mr. Paulding took charge of the Navy Department, Mr. Poinsett, having drawn up the general instructions under which the expedition was to proceed, resigned its further management into the hands of that officer. The Secretary of War, however, was responsible for the appointment of the officers, the final organization of the squadron, and, in a great measure, for the results of the expedition. We now proceed to show, from the pamphlet before us, what these results have been, and how we believe they will appear to others, whenever they are published.

The instructions were, in the first place, "to determine the existence of all doubtful islands and shoals in their track, and to discover and accurately fix the position of those which lie in or near that pursued by our merchant vessels in that quarter, and which may hitherto have escaped the observation of scientific navigators."

To examine the supposed position of doubtful islands and shoals, the following method was pursued: "When arrived within a short distance of the localities, as they appeared on the charts, and in their latitude, a course was shaped to run over their position, the ships being spread out from three to five miles apart, and with lookouts at the mast-heads; thus a space of twenty miles in latitude, and from fifty to sixty miles in longitude, was carefully passed over." It was ascertained that several shoals and rocks, which were marked on the charts, did not exist; while some were found as described, and others, not previously known, were discovered. In this manner, a great service has been rendered to navigation, by sweeping imaginary dangers from the path of the mariner, and pointing out such as are real.

In pursuance of the latter portion of the instructions, the *Antarctic Continent*, from 160° to 97° east longitude, has been discovered; and, notwithstanding the singular efforts that have been made to deprive our navy and country of the honor of this discovery, we have no doubt that, when all the facts which we

have examined come to be spread before the public, every impartial observer will accord the priority of this discovery to our squadron. Several small islands and dangerous reefs were discovered, and, among the former, one by the commander of the Peacock, where the natives had never seen any white men before. "The explorations of the squadron," says Mr. Wilkes, "must prove of great value to the whalers and their interests, not only in diminishing the dangers which beset their paths, by furnishing charts and sailing directions, but in opening new grounds for their fisheries, and affording the necessary information respecting places where they can obtain refreshments and supplies, and making arrangements at the different groups for affording them protection."

The hydrographic part of the results of this voyage will be full of interest and instruction. One hundred and eighty charts are now ready for the engraver, and Mr. Wilkes thinks there will probably be as many more when the surveys are plotted of all the islands, harbors, shoals, and reefs that have been examined. Sailing directions are to accompany these charts, with views of all the headlands, entrances to harbors, &c. These are, for the most part, new, for the examinations and surveys were confined to new ground, "unless there was reason to doubt the correctness of previous surveys."

In further pursuance of instructions, the coast of California and the northwest coast were fully examined, and observations made within our own territory, (Oregon,) which the Secretary of the Navy declared to be an equivalent for all the expense incurred by the expedition. The Sooloo sea was passed through "in order (say the instructions) to determine, if there is a safe route through it, which will shorten the passage of our vessels, during the contrary monsoons, to and from China." Lieutenant Wilkes says:

"Perhaps no portion of the route passed over in the cruise was found so erroneously laid down in the charts as this. More discoveries and corrections have been made in this locality than in any other portion of our work of equal extent. The entrance of the Sooloo sea, south of the Island of Mindoro, which I have called the Straits of Mindoro, was very inaccurately laid down; many islands were omitted entirely, and others badly placed with their attendant shoals. This entrance was examined and surveyed, and the route found to be safe and practicable with ordinary care. Thence we proceeded down the coast of Panay to the Straits of Basilan; thence to the Island of Sooloo, and anchored in the Soong roads, where we had communication with the Sultan of Sooloo, and received from him a stipulation, in writing, to protect the lives and property of our countrymen in case of shipwreck, and the terms on which he would receive our vessels and their cargoes. Many corrections were made in the charts of this group. From Sooloo we passed to the western entrance of this sea. The Strait of Balabac was examined, and a chart made of its entrance, which will much facilitate our navigation to China and the Philippine Islands during the contrary monsoon, instead of passing through the Palawan passage, at all times a dangerous one. Sailing directions have been prepared for this route."

Data for geographical maps of the islands have been obtained, and many valuable maps will be among the results of this expedition. We have seen those which are in course of preparation, and can bear testimony to the excellence of their execution. "There are over two thousand sheets of drawings, paintings, and sketches, embracing the various departments of natural history, and including portraits and costumes." These drawings, also, we have examined with great pleasure, and find that they are executed in a manner highly creditable to the artists, Messrs. Drayton and Agate.

Although the primary object of the expedition was considered to be the promotion of the great interests of navigation and commerce, still, the officers were instructed to profit by all occasions to extend the boundaries of science, and to acquire useful information, and, for that purpose, several scientific gentlemen accompanied the expedition, to make observations in the departments of philology, zoology, geology, and botany; while those of astronomy, hydrography, geography, the science of terrestrial magnetism, meteorology, and physics, were confided to the commander, and the other officers of the navy. The results will show that this distribution of duties was judicious, and fully justify the liberal policy of the Government in fitting out this expedition.

Mr. Wilkes, in his "Synopsis," says: "In Botany, ten thousand species have been obtained, and from three to five specimens of each brought home in a dried state." One hundred specimens of living plants have been brought home in cases. Sections of stems and specimens of wood have been collected and preserved; and the National Institute, ever since its first organization, has been distributing the seeds of flowers, trees, and vegetables, sent home at different times by the gentlemen engaged in the expedition. Geographical Botany, both terrestial and marine, has been particularly attended to, and the observations afford most interesting results relative to the distribution of plants over the globe. A beautiful collection of drawings in the botanical department has been made by Mr. Agate. For the truth of these statements, we can vouch from personal inspection.

In the Geological and Mineralogical departments much industry and research have been shown. In an examination of various countries visited, drawings have been made of all remarkable geological phenomena, and specimens of minerals and fossils obtained. These are deposited in the Museum of the Institute, and are extremely interesting and valuable. About eleven hundred species of Crustacea have been figured; many of them are microscopic, and rarely has the zoologist had such an opportunity to delineate them from life. Results of the highest interest may be expected from the extensive field opened to the labors of the Philologist; and some important facts have been ascertained relative to the physical history of man, which could only have been obtained in the course of such a voyage. The very extensive collections in every department of Natural History, now exhibiting in the halls of the National

Institute at Washington, bear abundant testimony to the zeal, industry, and ability of Messrs. Pickering, Peale, Dana, Rich, and Couthoy, naturalists; of Messrs. Drayton and Agate, artists; and of Mr. Brackenridge, horticulturist, of the expedition.

Of the labors of the naval officers, we cannot speak too highly. Mr. Wilkes says: "At all important points of the cruise, an observatory was established, and the longitude determined by culminating stars, in connection with similar observations at Cambridge (Massachusetts) University, by Mr. Bond, and at Washington, by Lieutenant Gillis." This was done by order, and at the expense of, Government. Every opportunity was taken to determine the true position of islands, reefs, &c., by observations made on shore. Of their labors in Hydrography, we have already spoken; they were extensive, and the constant aim appears to have been to obtain useful results.

In Magnetism, observations were made at fifty-seven stations, for dip and intensity; and at every point where the vessels remained a sufficient time, for diurnal variation. The dip was frequently observed at sea, due care being taken, during the observations, that the ship's head should be turned in the proper direction. The observations for intensity failed for want of a proper instrument, that of Fox. Observations for variation were taken twice a day, and, at all the islands that afforded suitable positions for results in this department, the instruments were carried on shore, and observations were made for dip and intensity.

"For the determination of the Southern Magnetic Pole, observations were made from 35° easterly va-variation to 59° westerly, between the longitudes of 97° and 165° east, nearly on the same parallel of latitude, which will give numerous convergent lines through that space for its determination. Our greatest dip was 87° 30′. The summit of Mouna Roa, thirteen thousand four hundred feet above the level of the sea, was among the magnetic stations. The pendulums were swung at six stations, one of them at the summit of Mouna Roa, and another at its base.

"Full meteorological journals were kept during the whole cruise. When in port, thermometers were sunk, and the temperature of springs, wells, and caves taken for the mean temperature of the climate. The epochs for the periodical meteors in August and November were attentively watched, in each quarter of the heavens, by four observers at a time. Many observations were made on the Zodical Lights; and the Aurora Australis was frequently observed.

"Numerous experiments were made to get some idea of the depth to which the solar light penetrates the ocean. Tidal observations were made, and much interesting information obtained relative to the sudden flux and reflux of the sea among the South-Sea-Islands.

"The temperature of the ocean, at various depths, was frequently ascertained; and daily experiments made, during the voyage home from the East Indies, at one hundred fathoms, gave some interesting results. Under the line, a stratum of water was passed over, twenty-three degrees colder than at the surface, and ten degrees colder than at the north or south of it, of about two hundred miles in width; giving rise to the belief, that there exists a *sub-marine* river flowing down the coast of Europe and Africa, and obeying the same laws that govern the atmospheric currents.

"Refractions, halos, and parhelia were noted, together with the circumstances of their appearance, including the state of the barometer, thermometer, and hygrometer, and sketches were made.

"The limits of the trades, the variable and the periodical winds, were carefully looked to, together with their direction and force.

"The currents of the ocean were often tried by the current log, particularly on the several coasts visited. On that of New Holland, a current was perceived, which the temperature will readily point out, between Sydney and Van Diemen's Land. This current runs, at times, with great strength, and according to the season of the year, is found at different distances from the land."

We have thus sketched, briefly, and hastily, some of the most important results of this voyage, obtained by the unceasing diligence and well directed zeal of the commander, officers, and scientific corps of the squadron. It furnishes, in our opinion, abundant cause of gratulation and triumph, that, in this attempt, we have accomplished so much for commerce, navigation, and science, and that this first contribution offered by the Government of the United States to the scientific world, has been rendered worthy of a great people.

We regret that there should have been any unnecessary delay in preparing for the press the manuscript notes of the gentlemen concerned in this labor; and still more, that an effort had not been made, at an earlier period, to publish a new chart of the Pacific ocean, comprehending all the discoveries made by our enterprising navigators. We hope that this will be shortly done.

As we desire to keep clear of politics, and to avoid even the appearance of criticising the measures of the existing Government, we will not enter upon the subject of the court martials, which followed the return of the squadron; but content ourselves with the remark, that the Executive officers of the Government at Washington ought to consider themselves in the light of grand-jurors, bound to examine into the character of the charges preferred against an officer, and the nature of the evidence; and not to order a court in order merely to gratify the resentment of the accuser, although there may be but little apparent cause for a formal investigation. While on this subject, we must be allowed to mention another grievous abuse into which the Navy Department has fallen. We mean the appointment of able and distinguished lawyers to be judge advocates; thus compelling the accused, whatever may be his circumstances, to employ the best counsel to be had in the place where the trial is held, or to obtain legal aid from other cities, at still greater expense. This proceeding usually creates a struggle between two members of the bar, thereby enlisting feelings which too often convert the judge advocate into the prosecuting attorney. If this practice be continued, the discipline of the navy will be destroyed. If a superior officer is liable to be tried on frivolous charges brought against him by a junior, and exposed to ruinous expenses, whatever may be the result of the trial, the discipline of the service will be made to yield to the dread of such an unequal measure of justice, and the gravest faults will remain unrebuked.

WASHINGTON.

THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1843.

DEBATE ON THE TREATY.

The last steamer brought us accounts of a highly interesting debate in Parliament, on the Treaty of Washington.

MACAULEY complained of it, and urged that "the right of visitation was not only not established, but left by the eighth article of the treaty in a worse condition; that article having been ratified by the Queen in the sense of *preserving*, and by the United States in the sense of *renouncing* that claim."

So also did Lord PALMERSTON declaim against it from the Opposition; he pronounced the same article a backward step.

Sir ROBERT PEEL, in defending it, said, in reply to Lord PALMERSTON, "Lord PALMERSTON had declaimed against the treaty with reference to the slave-trade; now, America had been induced *to agree in this treaty to the right of visitation on the coast of Africa;* which, so far from being a retrograde step on the subject of the slave-trade, was a step in direct advance, and one which Lord PALMERSTON, in his ten years' administration of the Foreign Office, had never been able to accomplish." He also announced it as the intention of the British Government to adhere to the pretensions with regard to the right of visit and search, as set forth in Lord ABERDEEN's despatch of December, 1841. That despatch, our readers will recollect, considered the right of search over American vessels, *indispensable* to the objects in view by Her Majesty's Government, and expressed the determination to search under our flag at all hazards.

Sir CHARLES NAPIER, himself an Admiral, particularly objected to the eighth article, because, "*as the right of search had not been distinctly recognised, he feared that, were we engaged in a war with another power, the first thing that America would do, if we should press our own seamen, would be to declare war against this country.*"

Is this the course they intend to pursue? Let them beware. Lord PALMERSTON not only desires to see this policy adopted, but imputes motives to us, because we will not consent to join them in it. "The right of search," said he, "was indispensable, and wherever that right was refused, you might be sure that there was some slave-trading interest behind."

His Lordship must be ignorant indeed of American sentiment on this subject, as well as of the past course and uniform policy of this Government, with regard to the African slave-trade, if he really supposes that there is any interest in this country in favor of it. The laws *here* are made by the people, and if they desired this horrid traffic to be continued, they could erase from their statute book the clause that makes it piracy, and that *invited* England to do the same. The insinuation is unworthy of a man who has occupied the position that his Lordship once held.

COMMODORE PORTER.—On a preceding page will be found a notice of the death and burial of this naval hero. The general order of the Navy Department speaks his eulogy.

Captain BOLTON has been relieved, at his own request, from the order to command the Brazil squadron, and Captain DANIEL TURNER has been ordered to that duty.

Steamer *Union*, Lieut. Comm'r HUNTER, left Washington at sunrise, on the morning of Saturday, the 22d, and arrived at Norfolk the next day. The "experiment" of Lieut. HUNTER has been satisfactorily tested, and he can justly claim the high honor of having established a new era in the application of steam. His plan was long the desideratum for armed vessels, and his discovery may be deemed as but little inferior to that of FULTON.

For the Army & Navy Chronicle and Scientific Repository.

ELECTRICITY.

A writer in one of the New York papers some time since made some remarks on the electrical properties of *India rubber;* and although the common fact of exciting electricity by rubbing a sheet of paper with India rubber has been long known, I am not aware that it has been used in any other manner for that purpose. I have long been in the habit of making use of caoutchouc for the purpose of exciting or generating electricity, and find that in this respect it is superior to all other substances that I have made use of. Indeed, if an electrical machine be constructed of a circle of baked wood covered with thick sheet caoutchouc, and a rubber be used of buffalo or cat skin, it will give out more electricity than a plate glass machine of the same extent of rubbing surface. It requires to be *warm* and *dry*, and appears to be more affected by cold and moisture than glass. Its electricity is resinous or negative.

In connection, I will state that in a recent visit to the rope-walk of the navy-yard near this place, I was shown the *leather* main band of the machinery then in motion, which is about ten inches broad and more than one hundred feet long. I found that its friction with the *air* generated such a vast quantity of electricity, that the ends of my fingers, held two feet from its surface, caused a distinct and beautiful purple brush or lambent flame to proceed *apparently* from the fingers towards the band; and when standing on a plate of glass and approaching the ends of my fingers to within three or four inches, strong sparks more than two inches long could be obtained in abundance from any part of my person, and strong enough when taken from my hand to convulse the arm.

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BOSTON, MASS., *April* 20, 1843.

ARMY.

MOVEMENTS OF TROOPS.

3d Infantry.—This regiment, including officers and 650 men, have arrived at New Orleans from Port Leon, Florida, on their way to Jefferson barracks. They are all in good health. The following are the officers: Lieut. Col. Hitchcock; Major Lear; Lieut. Henry, A. C. S.; Assistant Surgeons Kennedy and Levely; Captains Morris, Wheeler, Bainbridge, Cotton, and Van Horne; Lieutenants Smith, Gordon, Dobbins, Johnson, Shepherd, Johns, Jordan, Buell, Bowman, Sykes, and Baker.

Dragoons.—Companies K and H left Baton Rouge, Louisiana, on the 8th instant for Fort Jesup.

NAVY.

GENERAL ORDER.

Navy Department, *April* 24, 1843.

Intelligence has reached this Department, that Commodore David Porter, late of the United States Navy, departed this life near Constantinople, on the 3d day of March, 1843.

Commodore Porter has stood conspicuous among the distinguished men who have done honor to our country. His devoted patriotism, his consummate skill, and his indomitable courage, displayed on many memorable occasions, have won for him the gratitude of his own country and the admiration of the whole world. Although he had retired from our naval service before his death, yet he left with it the full renown which his own great actions had shed upon its flag; and as that imperishable honor remains unimpaired, we claim to consider him as still belonging to the Navy of the United States. while we pay to his memory the debt of gratitude which we owe to it.

The President therefore directs that the flags be hoisted at half mast; that this order be read and thirteen minute guns be fired at each navy yard and naval station, and on board every vessel of war in the United States Navy, at noon, on the day after the receipt of this order; and that the officers of the navy and marine corps wear crape on the left arm for the space of thirty days. A. P. UPSHUR.

April. ORDERS.

19—Lieut. H. W. Morris, rendezvous, New York.
Lieut. T. A. M. Craven, order to sloop Falmouth revoked, and leave for one month.
Prof. of Math. B. McGowan, to sloop St. Louis.
Master Geo. Marshall, report to chief of Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography.
Mid. Julian Myers, three months leave.
Mid. Adrien Deslonde, sloop Saratoga.

20—Lieut. Geo. T. Sinclair, detached from receiving-ship at Norfolk, 1st May, and 6 months leave.
Lieut. Jno. W. West, command of brig Somers.
Boatswain John Mills, sloop St. Louis.

21—Lt. J. P. McDonough, navy-yard, New York.
Ass't Sur. Hugh Morson, suspended one year from Dec. 14, 1842.

22—Capt. D. Turner, command of Brazil squadron.
P. Mid. J. W. Read, furloughed one year.

24—Lieut. B. W. Hunter, frigate Macedonian.
Lieut. John Contee, frigate Macedonian.
Ass't Sur. Wm. S. Bishop, sloop Decatur.
Mid. R. A. Marr, leave one month.

25—Master John Freeman, Boatswains William Brady and William Waters; Gunner Thomas Ryley; Carpenters John Southwick and Henry P. Leslie; and Sailmakers Samuel B. Banister and Benjamin Crow, added to the board of officers for revising the "table of allowances."

26 Lieutenants W. I. H. Robertson, L. C. Sarton, and J. F. Armstrong; Assistant Surgeon J. J. Brownlee, Passed Mid. J. R. M. Mullany, as acting master; and Midshipmen George W. Clark, Wm. H. Hudson, and J. W. A. Nicholson, to the brig Somers, at New York. (The Somers has been ordered round to Norfolk, preparatory to sea service.)

April. APPOINTMENTS.

24—Master's Mate Henry R. Blakiston.

26—Saml. M. Edgar, of Tenn., to be Assis. Surgeon.

RESIGNATION.

25—William S. Ringgold, Passed Midshipman.

Naval Intelligence.

Ship *Marion*, Comm'r Armstrong, at St. Johns, Porto Rico, April 3, to sail in a few days for the U. S.

Schooner *Flirt* left Charleston, S. C., for Chagres, Saturday, April 22. Officers:

Lieut. Com., John A. Davis; Lieutenant, Henry Eld, Jr.; Acting Master, Charles E. Fleming; Assistant Surgeon, Charles W. Tait; P. Mid., Hamilton F. Porter, John N. Parker; Midshipman, Samuel B. Elliott; Captain's Clerk, Wm. Bull.

Home Squadron.—Razee *Independence* arrived at Pensacola on the 8th inst., from Martinique.

Brig *Bainbridge*, Lieut. Com. Johnston, arrived at Havana 31st March, in 14 days from Port au Prince.

Brig *Boxer*, Lieut. Com. Bullus, bound to Havana, was spoken on the 9th instant, off Double Headed Shot Keys. Officers and crew well.

Brig *Dolphin*, at Pensacola, took on board Mr. Southall, bearer of despatches to our Minister at Mexico, the 16th inst.; expected to sail that afternoon for Vera Cruz.

Mediterranean Squadron.—Sloop *Erie* arrived at Marseilles, March 23, from Port Mahon.

Store-ship *Lexington*, Lieut. Com. Glendy, arrived at New York, from Norfolk, on Monday, 24th inst.

Brazil Squadron.—Ship-of-the-line *Delaware*, Captain McCauley, bearing the broad pendant of Commodore Morris, was at Rio Janeiro on the 18th of February, to sail next day for the Mediterranean.

Sloop *John Adams* sailed from Rio Janeiro, Feb. 27.

Pacific Squadron.—Frigate *United States*, Capt. Armstrong, and sloop-of-war *Cyane*, Comm'r Stribling, were at Mazatlan on the 15th of Februrary.

Sloop *Yorktown*, Commander Nicholas, sailed from Mazatlan on the 4th of February, for Valparaiso.

Sloop *Dale*, Comm'r Dornin, remained on the coast.

East India Squadron.—Frigate *Constellation*, Commodore Kearney, at Manilla, Dec. 13; to return to China for supplies, and thence to the United States, *via* the Cape of Good Hope. Officers and crew in good health.

Sloop *Boston*, Comm'r Long, spoken October 23, in the Straits of Banca; would visit New Holland, New Zealand, thence to the Society and other islands, and return home.

Marriage.

In Concord, N. H., Lieut. F. B. McNEILL, U. S. Marines, to ELIZABETH, only daughter of James Balloch, Esq., of St. John, N. H.

Deaths.

On the 14th inst., on board U. S. receiving-ship Ohio, ABRAHAM WILLIAMS, seaman, a native of Duxbury, Mass., aged 45.

On Sunday, 16th inst., at Norfolk, Va., WM. HASKINS, a native of the State of New York. He was a seaman in the U. S. Navy, attached to the sloop-of-war Concord, and filled the station of captain of the forecastle on board that ship at the time she was lost.

On Sunday, the 16th inst., the dead body of a seaman, named CROCKER, belonging to the Navy Yard, was found in the Eastern Branch. He had been missing since last January.